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## THE FARADAY CENTENARY.

ON Wednesday, June 17, at the Royal Institution, London, Lord Rayleigh delivered a lecture in connection with the one hundredth anniversary of Faraday's birth. The following abstract of the lecture is from *Nature* of June 25.

Lord Rayleigh said that the man whose name and work they were celebrating was identified in a remarkable degree with the history of that institution. If they could not take credit for his birth, in other respects they could hardly claim too much. During a connection of fifty-four years, Faraday found there his opportunity, and for a large part of the time his home. The simple story of his life must be known to most who heard him. Fired by contact with the genius of Davy, he volunteered his services in the laboratory of the institution. Davy, struck with the enthusiasm of the youth, gave him the desired opportunity, and, as had been said, secured in Faraday not the least of his discoveries. The early promise was indeed amply fulfilled, and for a long period of years, by his discoveries in chemistry and electricity, Faraday maintained the renown of the Royal Institution and the honor of England in the eye of the civilized world. He should not attempt in the time at his disposal to trace in any detail the steps of that wonderful career. The task had already been performed by able hands. In their own "Proceedings" they had a vivid sketch from the pen of one whose absence that day was a matter of lively regret. Dr. Tyndall was a personal friend, had seen Faraday at work, had enjoyed opportunities of watching the action of his mind in face of a new idea. All that he could aim at was to recall, in a fragmentary manner, some of Faraday's great achievements, and if possible to estimate the position they held in contemporary science.

Whether they had regard to fundamental scientific import, or to practical results, the first place must undoubtedly be assigned to the great discovery of the induction of electrical currents. He proposed first to show the experiment in something like its original form, and then to pass on to some variations, with illustrations from the behavior of a model, whose mechanical properties were analogous. He was afraid that these elementary experiments would tax the patience of many who heard him, but it was one of the difficulties of his task that Faraday's discoveries were so fundamental as to have become familiar to all serious students of physics.

The first experiment required them to establish in one coil of copper wire an electric current by completing the communication with a suitable battery; that was called the primary circuit, and Faraday's discovery was, that, at the moment of the starting or stopping of the primary current, then, in a neighboring circuit, in the ordinary sense of the words, completely detached, there was a tendency to induce a current. He had said that those two circuits were perfectly distinct, and they were distinct in the sense that there was no conducting communication between them, but, of course, the importance of the experiment resided in this, — that it proved that in some sense the circuits were not distinct; that an electric current circulating in one does produce an effect in the other, which is propagated across a perfectly blank space occupied by air, and which might equally well have been occupied by vacuum. It might appear that that was a very simple and easy experiment, and of course it was so in a modern laboratory, but it was otherwise at the time when Faraday first made it. With all his skill, Faraday did not light upon truth without delay and difficulty. One of Faraday's biographers thus wrote: "In December, 1824, he had attempted to obtain an electric current by means of a magnet, and on three occasions he had made elaborate and unsuccessful attempts to produce a current in one wire by means of a current in another wire, or by a magnet. He still persevered, and on August 29, 1831, — that is to say, nearly seven years after his first attempts, — he obtained the first evidence that an electric current induced another in a different circuit. On Sept. 23 he writes to a friend, 'I am busy just now again with electro-magnetism, and think I have got hold of a good thing, but cannot say; it may be a weed instead of a fish that, after all my labor, I at last haul up.'" We now know that it was a very big fish indeed.

About the time that the experiments of which he had been speaking were made, Faraday evidently felt uneasiness as to the soundness of the views about electricity held by his contemporaries, and to some extent shared by himself, and he made elaborate experiments to remove all doubt from his mind. He re-proved the complete identity of the electricity of lightning and of the electricity of the voltaic cell. He was evidently in terror of being misled by words which might convey a meaning beyond that which facts justified. Much use was made of the term "poles" of the galvanic battery. Faraday was afraid of the meaning which might be attached to the word "pole," and he introduced a word since generally substituted, "electrode," which meant nothing more than the way or path by which the electricity was led in. "Electric fluid" was a term which Faraday considered dangerous, as meaning more than they really knew about the nature of electricity, and, as was remarked by Maxwell, Faraday succeeded in banishing the term "electric fluid" to the region of newspaper paragraphs.

Diamagnetism was a subject upon which Faraday worked, but it would take too long to go into that subject, though a word or two must be said. Faraday found that whereas a ball of iron or nickel or cobalt, when placed near a magnet or combination of magnets, would be attracted to the place where the magnetic force was the greatest, the contrary occurred if for the iron was substituted a corresponding mass of bismuth or of many other substances. The experiments in diamagnetism were of a microscopic character, but he would like to illustrate one position of Faraday's, developed years afterwards by Sir William Thomson, and demonstrated by him in many beautiful experiments, only one of which he now proposed to bring before them. Supposing they had two magnetic poles, a north pole and a south pole, with an iron ball between them, free to move along a horizontal line perpendicular to that joining the poles, then, according to the rule he had stated, the iron ball would seek an intermediate position, the place at which the magnetic force was the greatest. Consequently, if the iron ball be given such a position, they would find it tended with considerable force to a central position of equilibrium; but if, instead of using opposite poles, they used, e.g., two north poles, they would find that the iron ball did not tend to the central position, because that was not the position in which the magnetic force was the greatest. At that position there was no magnetic force, for the one pole completely neutralized the action